Identifying and Using Effective Teaching Behaviours

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IDENTIFYING AND USING EFFECTIVE TEACHING BEHAVIOURS

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A Transcript of the Author's Commentaries from
the Videotapes Accompanying Chapters One to Five

in

"Evaluating and Improving Teaching Performance: Inservice Kit"

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The contents of this document are not intended to explicate or imply Alberta Education's policy regarding the evaluation or improvement of teaching performance.

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PREFACE

This document is a transcript of the videotape commentaries accompanying Chapters One to Five in "Evaluating and Improving Teaching Performance: Inservice Kit." With the exception of material from Chapter One, the commentary is delimited to teaching effectiveness. Hence, the content lends itself to a program that focuses on the development of knowledge and attitudes regarding the identification and application of effective teaching skills. As the literature in the field of the evaluation of teaching suggests, such development is a natural first phase in a sequence of activities. Completing the sequence are observation, evaluation and supervision of teaching, with the last activity being premised on data emanating from those that precede. This document also provides an efficient way in which the videotape commentaries can be "previewed," without actual viewing. For those wishing to familiarize themselves with the content of the videotapes but who do not have the time and/or access to the necessary viewing equipment, this material is invaluable.

The reader will note that two sets of videotape numbers associated with the various commentaries are recorded throughout the publication. The first number matches the one used in the manual entitled **Evaluating and Improving Teaching Performance** and pp. 138 - 144 in **Planning for an Evaluation of Teaching Performance: Volume 1**. The second number (recorded in parentheses) is the accession number assigned by the ACCESS Network Dubbing Centre. The ACCESS Network dubbing service is available on the usual nil-charge basis to Alberta school systems. Use the accession numbers noted within the parentheses in requests for dubbing (videotapes are to be provided or purchased by the client). Order from:

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CHAPTER ONE

EVALUATING AND IMPROVING TEACHING PERFORMANCE: INSERVICE KIT

TAPE 1 - 1 (Accession Number 2720-01)

Introduction

The earlier inspector came to the local country school unannounced. He would sit at the back of the room making copious notes and then leave without giving much feedback to the teacher, who waited anxiously for weeks to see a copy of his report.

Teachers no longer dread supervisory visits, at least not to the same degree. In some districts, teacher evaluation has evolved to the point where the teacher actually looks forward to a classroom visit and the feedback which follows it. The process of supervising instruction involves cooperation between the administrator and the teacher in order to reach the mutual goal of improved instruction and the optimum achievement of students.

What goes on in school districts where evaluation is a part of the daily lives of teachers? Classroom visits are conducted frequently, followed by productive conferencing sessions. Feedback concerning what was seen and heard is provided to the teacher. Alternatives are generated for the use of particular teaching skills. If the observer is well trained, the teacher has nothing to lose and a lot to gain. Receiving quality feedback is highly motivating. Teachers are aiming for excellence and are searching for ways to achieve it. The question is, "How do you set up an evaluation process which will be accepted by teachers and which will contribute to their professional growth while satisfying the expectations of school boards that teachers are evaluated on a regular basis?"

We like to feel that we are already experts in the evaluation of teaching, but so do parents and students. Being an excellent teacher does not always make one a skilled classroom observer. We feel confident that we can recognize good teaching when we see it, but we may be basing our opinions on a limited set of factors and we may not be taking situational variables into account. It is hoped that the information provided in this kit will give you, as evaluators, additional hints and suggestions for looking in classrooms and that it will increase both flexibility and level of comfort when observing teaching in a variety of settings and grade levels.

It would be interesting to know what methods and criteria were used by the evaluator of yesteryear. He probably relied rather heavily on intuition, which likely served him well. Also, he probably placed a great deal of emphasis on organizational and managerial skills, as we still do today. However, it is doubtful that he could articulate clearly why he thought the teaching was good. It is doubtful, too, that he was able to provide the teacher with an abundance of pointers and helpful hints so he or she could do a better job.

Fortunately, during the last few decades, research on teaching has provided us with increasingly more valid criteria for examining the process of teaching. The information from research has been gleaned from hours and hours of classroom observation. For example, in the early 1970's several large classroom observational studies were conducted in Texas and California and these allowed researchers to study the process in a more systematic way. Both less effective and more effective teachers were selected as subjects in these studies. Not surprisingly, teachers whose students made higher achievement gains displayed behaviours which were used only

infrequently by the less effective teachers. In fact, many different teaching behaviours were noted. It is tempting to infer that specific teaching behaviours actually caused the students to achieve. But the teaching-learning process is a very complex one. Although there are strong positive relationships between the use of specific teaching behaviours and higher levels of student achievement, we cannot prove that certain teaching behaviours caused these results. Our best hunch is that these teaching behaviours do make a difference.

Project Quest, conducted in 1978-79 by Dr. Al MacKay, Director for the Centre of Research and Teaching, replicated aspects of these large scale studies. Sixty Edmonton Public School Board teachers were observed for ten hours each. Among other findings, results confirmed those suggested by the other studies, that teachers whose students performed better on the district and standardized achievement tests exhibited more of the specific teaching behaviours identified.

We feel confident in recommending that teachers and supervisors know what these key behaviours are, and know when to use them. It still appears that the most valued teaching skill is **decision-making** - that is, when to use which skill. We must enlarge our repertoire of skills in order to develop a richer background upon which to draw during instruction. It would be very inappropriate to take the list of behaviours set forth in this kit and recommend that all teachers use them all of the time, and in every situation. The kit explains how certain selected skills could be used in certain contexts. As we continue to learn more from educational research, we are able to keep expanding our knowledge of skills and thereby make better teaching and supervisory decisions.

What then are the characteristics of an effective classroom observer?

(1) He must be open-minded. There is no one right way to teach.

(2) He must be able to accept data without making up his mind too quickly and moving to closure.

(3) He must have normal to above average perceptual skills, meaning good vision and hearing, and he should be a naturally keen observer. A lot happens during instruction and one has to be able to see and hear it.

(4) Being able to write notes quickly is an obvious advantage.

(5) He should have a positive and supportive attitude. Teaching isn't an easy job.

(6) He should know his own weaknesses and short-comings as an observer and must work to reduce these. We all have personal biases and flaws in perception that interfere with our objectivity. We even see things that aren't there. We have to offset tendencies to be too positive or to be overly critical. For example, a high school principal who becomes an elementary school principal may be affected by the new setting, or his observations may be affected by the expec .tions he holds for younger students. These will have to be adjusted to fit the new circumstances.

Working in pairs or in a small group is a powerful way to reduce biases. You will soon find that you do not agree when you try to do coding together. There are many reasons for this disagreement. However, we have to aim for consistency in coding among supervisors, and in our own coding performance over time in order to try to guarantee some level of objectivity and reliability in our data gathering.

(7) Another characteristic of an effective observer is having a good set of interpersonal skills. He needs to be able to establish and maintain rapport, and to foster a mutual professional respect and trust. More and more literature on conferencing is now becoming available. In addition, counselling techniques can help to improve our conferencing skills. A particularly promising area is derived from N.L.P. - Neural Linguistic Programming.

(8) The classroom observer needs to have good communication skills in order to recognize teaching skills of communication being used to advantage. The observer also needs to have good communication skills in the conferencing situation. In particular, he must become an active listener if, indeed, he listens at all. Research tells us being a poor listener is a common failing. An excellent way to check on your own tendencies is to tape-record one of your conferences. You might be surprised at how frequently you tend to interrupt the teacher and virtually monopolize the conversation. We need to learn how to use probing questions, clarifying questions, and paraphrasing. The whole conferencing process can break down without good interpersonal and communication skills.

(9) The classroom observer also has to know something about instrumentation. The quest for the magic teacher evaluation instrument goes on and one. Hence, time is spent in the text discussing the advantages and limitations of different kinds of data collection.

The typical rating scale falls into the high inference instrument category. High inference data collection is the process of soaking up as much as possible without counting or making qualitative decisions. Instead, you just look at and consider all aspects. Then you make an inferential leap from your data, arriving at a numerical rating as a result of all the looking and thinking that you have done previously. Low inference instrumentation focuses on specific well-defined snippits of behaviour. One notes their occurrence on a recording sheet. The behaviours under study are readily definable and observable. "Did it happen?" "Yes or No?" "How many times did it happen?" You may be interested in preserving the sequence of events. For example, in Chapter Four there is a rather sophisticated instrument that enables you to record the kind of question asked, the kind of student answer given, and the teacher's response to that student. With an instrument such as this, recurrent patterns of teaching can be identified and examined.

An evaluator needs a broad repertoire of experience for coding. Use as many different classroom observation systems as you can. Try them out, just to gain experience. A

skilled, low inference observer has little trouble taking a wide-angle focus later on. They have more confidence and are able to pick up the fine detail they have been looking for in low inference data collection. The sequence evaluators should use initially is:

1. record on low inference systems first;
2. broaden to using high inference coding systems;
3. develop an interesting repertoire of coding skills; and
4. design your own instrumentation systems which will reflect the uniqueness of each setting.

Much work needs to be done in the development of more suitable data collection instruments. For instance, in the high school setting, in certain curriculum subject areas, the development of suitable observational instruments has been neglected. Hence, there is a need for observers to design methods of collecting the information in these areas. Don't try to force every lesson under the same set of generic skills. It may not make sense to do so. It would be very unfortunate if people discovered an instrument in this kit and used it forever, never moving on to develop instruments that would work better for them. Be eclectic! Modify instruments! Use what suits your needs, while always maintaining a concern for validity. As a result of closely examining and using a variety of instruments, you should question whether current practices or particular questions or instruments should be used district-wide, or even school-wide. They might be used more appropriately with sub-groups of teachers. It is tempting to make it simple, and use the same form for all teachers, but this approach has not worked for research on teaching and won't really work for supervision either. The concern for standardization, however, is recognized. Therefore, what would be a more effective way? What would result in more specific data collection? We do not treat all students the same way. Neither do we expect them to learn in the same way. Then, why would we treat all teachers the same way when we are supervising them?

Here are a few concerns to think about, and to worry about a little. What will we do with the data we collect? We have an obligation to share it with the teacher - which is the whole idea - not just file it in a cabinet somewhere. The kit will help you improve your technical competence. "What should you look for?" "How should you record it?" How could you coach the teacher to help put the skill in place?" "How do you prepare a report?" There are also political, professional, and ethical requirements. Our Teachers' Association requires that we behave ethically and that we follow certain procedures when we are supervising teachers. Who are appropriate personnel for conducting evaluation of teaching performance? For example, peer evaluation is a contentious issue. Reporting to teachers must be public and up front. In some professions discussions between the professional and the client are confidential. There is no such protection for school administrators - the supervisors of teaching. They cannot hide behind the "professional - client" relationship. They can be legally required to declare what has been seen, and they must be prepared to talk about it. The teacher must understand that you intend to work formatively but, ultimately, any information gathered can be used for summative purposes.

By now you might feel overwhelmed by all the responsibility, with all the skills you'll need, and with the requirements placed upon you. But, teacher supervision is not an easy job and it is not a job for amateurs. We have to consciously work at acquiring and improving our supervisory skills. We are all at different levels in our skill development. We can learn from each other, and we all have room for improvement.

How do we improve? Well, first we have to get our feet wet and do some observing. You can do this by watching a videotape or by visiting a classroom - preferably in pairs or in small groups. You need to discuss your observations with colleagues and then hold formative discussions with the teachers. Find a teacher who will let you practise your skills, first by observing and recording data and then by sharing your findings with the teacher. In order to prepare for the classroom visit you need to know your purpose for conducting the visit. Do you have an agreement with the teacher? What are the ground rules? What will you do with the data? Who else will see it? What will you focus on? Will you adopt a narrow focus or will you use a wide approach? In a one-shot visitation, you are looking for everything. This is too overwhelming! One wonders whether it is even valid. However, one does have to consider everything if one has to write a summative report. Very important decisions such as promotion, retention, or planning for professional development needs will be made on the basis of your data. When would you be sure of what you have observed? Research demands a minimum of ten visits in order to establish a reliable and stable situation for observation. This does not mean ten hours. A visit might be forty minutes or it might be any segment of teaching that has a logical beginning and ending. Administrators say they are too busy already and that excellent teachers do not need classroom visits. Everybody needs feedback, though, and if you are good at what you do you can even help excellent teachers expand their repetorie and grow. Aim for many visits. Do what you can and, then, try to do more than that.

The time you spend observing should be representative of the daily life in the classroom. You may need to sample different contexts. For example, if the same teacher teaches both, you may need to observe language arts in the morning and physical education in the afternoon. As the setting varies required teaching skills vary and, therefore, you really need to observe in all of them.

What will be your purpose in working with the teacher? Will you work with him over time to improve instruction? Or, is your purpose to fill in a once-a-year report? In either case you have to collect data which, as was pointed out earlier, may be used against him. Teachers are understandably nervous. Hence, there is a real need for the evaluators to have really good technical, communication, and interpersonal skills.

Some supervision models combine elements of both the formative and summative process. Probably that is what you will opt to do as well. This means you will have to have a system of providing on-going, supportive feedback and coaching for the teacher. However, at certain points in time you must prepare judgmental reports about the teaching competency. Be clear about your immediate purpose and tell the teacher. Don't pretend to be formative if you are conducting a summative evaluation, and don't change your mind mid-stream.

Given that the purpose has been stated and the visit is scheduled for next Tuesday morning, now you must decide on a focus and instrumentation - preferably with teacher input and agreement. Go in, observe, get your data, make notes, use an instrument, think about the data, analyze it, and then prepare a conference. Feed the information back to the teacher in a way that is useful and non-threatening. The more specific the information is, the better. The kit provides help with these observational skills and will help you to recognize what the teacher has said and done. It also provides suggestions regarding conferencing and recording skills.

After each visit there must be a conference. Therefore, we must improve conferencing skills. First, be prepared to spend some time, perhaps forty minutes, holding the conference. Find a location away from your office where the telephone and other people will not interrupt you. You might even hold the conference in the teacher's classroom where events might be more easily recalled. Pay attention to the seating arrangement and try not to have a big table between you. Sit at the corner, or side by side, so you can easily share your data with the teacher. Set the teacher at ease first, and offer encouragement. Work on developing rapport, trust, and a partnership with the teacher. Don't adopt the "tell and sell" approach. Listen to what the teacher has to say, otherwise the teacher will soon learn to sit and listen and leave when it is over. Use questions to probe and clarify misunderstandings, and paraphrase to make sure you have heard and understood correctly. Keep the conference on track. You have a goal - to examine and discuss particular behaviours. Set targets or goals for future work. At the end of the conference, summarize the understandings you have arrived at together.

You may wish to keep a file recording the number of visits and the topics under discussion. The teacher should have access to this and should be permitted to add information to it.

The more you observe and conference the more productive it will be for both you and the teacher. When the time rolls around for a summative report you will be able to base your judgement on a lot of valid information that you have gathered over time. This is fair to the teacher.

Realize that teachers have different levels of readiness for the evaluation process. Some are apt to be very apprehensive. Is he or she knowledgeable about effective teaching behaviours? Maybe time should be spent at staff meetings in discussing one behaviour and examples of it, as well as distributing reading materials that describe effective teaching strategies.

What is the teacher's attitude to change? Is she resistant? You may have to apply gentle pressure so that the teacher will see the need for change. In some cases you will have to be far more directive.

What amount of information is appropriate to share with the teacher? Don't overload the teacher with too many suggestions at one time. Are you sensitive to the differences in people and their feelings? As, over time, confidence builds in the process, teachers will be more ready to participate fully. Believe that teachers are aiming for excellence in teaching. As you continue to work you will encounter less resistance if you have done a good job of supervising.

Our role in the evaluation of teaching is a key one. What you do and how you do it affect both the quality of supervision and the teachers' performance. If the teachers work with you, together you can do great things for the children in your school.

TAPE 1 - 3 (Accession Number 2720-03)

The "A" Conference

Basically the "A" conference is very supportive and fairly brief. The supervisor highlights the skill being observed by providing several examples of how the teacher used it effectively in the lesson. Thus, the supervisor provides encouragement for the teacher to keep on using the technique. The "A" conference should be conducted as a normal, relaxed, conversational experience for the teacher.

The parts to look for in the "A" conference, which also constitutes the beginning section of other conferences, are:

(1) the initial greeting and comments which are meant to put the teacher at ease and to set a friendly atmosphere for the conference. The supervisor should state what sort of conference it will be and should review what will happen during the conference.

(2) the second stage which invites the teacher to provide perceptions about the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson. The focus of an "A" conference, however, is on strengths, so the conversation must be kept oriented positively. By listening attentively to teacher input here, the conferencer should quickly be able to recap and acknowledge any teacher comments which directly pertain to the feedback which will follow next.

(3) the third stage when the conferencer gives specific examples of a particular skill which the teacher was using to good advantage. Detailed descriptions of what the teacher did and said remind the teacher of how she used the skill well. You need to be able to take good verbatim or anecdotal notes while you are observing in order to do this. A commendation should be given to the teacher for this demonstration of skill. A review of the skill and its component parts is provided, along with the rationale for its use and when and why it should be used.

(4) the last part of the "A" conference when the supervisor asks the teacher to summarize what she has learned in the conference.

Conference types "B", "C", and "D", as they are carried out in the Teacher Effectiveness Program in Edmonton, all contain an "A" conference in the beginning.

The "B" Conference

The "B" conference flows smoothly out of an "A" conference. The intent of the "B" conference is to encourage participants to generate examples of alternative uses of a

demonstrated skill. The teacher may then employ the skill on another occasion and perhaps in a different subject area.

The formal aspects of the "B" conference involve the following:

(1) An assurance to the teacher that they are not looking for better ways of using the skill but, instead, are looking for **other** ways of using it. They are looking for ways of expanding an already successful skill area.

(2) The supervisor provides an objective and purpose for the above by brainstorming for **alternatives.** After several suggestions have been developed, a check should be made to see that the generated examples conform to the key characteristics of the skill.

(3) The teacher is asked for a **commitment** to try the particular suggestion which appeals to her the most.

(4) The "B" conference should end, as did the "A" conference, with the teacher **summarizing** the key points discussed and identifying benefits obtained from generating the alternatives.

During the "A" part of a "B" conference, the conferencer keeps the "B" conference format in mind. Transitional statements are used to signify which conference phase participants are in as they move through the process.

TAPE 1 - 4 (Accession Number 2720-04)

The "C" Conference

As stated earlier, the "C" conference is preceded by a supportive and fairly brief "A" conference. One of the skills the teacher has used effectively is highlighted by the observer and specific examples of what the teacher did and said are presented to the teacher. This mirroring of behaviour assures the teacher that the particular skill is in place and has been used to good advantage.

The basic purpose of the "C" conference is to encourage teachers to identify those parts of the teaching episode with which they were not satisfied. Thus, in collaboration with the observer, strategies for reducing or eliminating future unsatisfactory outcomes can be developed.

The supervisor may make the transition from the "A" to the "C" conference by inviting the teacher to select a skill area he would like to concentrate on and improve. Then the supervisor reviews the critical attributes of the chosen skill area and the rationale for its use. Together, the supervisor and the teacher discuss specific alternatives that could be used in future lessons.

The distinguishing feature of a "C" conference is that the teacher is the one who identifies the skill which will be the focus for discussion. This demands flexibility on the part of the conferencer, as well as a working knowledge of a great variety of skill areas in order to act as a resource person for the teacher. The emphasis is on the cooperative sharing of ideas in order to generate viable alternatives. The teacher then makes a commitment, in the conference, to try a particular alternative. The supervisor should follow through at a later time to see, or at least to ask, whether the suggestions worked successfully for the teacher.

TAPE 1 - 5 (Accession Number 2720-05)

Conferencing With The Teacher In Difficulty

The first tasks in working with a teacher in difficulty are:

(1) to examine the problem areas; and

(2) to establish the desired outcomes and the kinds of indicators which would show that performance results are being achieved.

If the effort is to be successful, one must elicit the cooperation of the teacher. The main aim when on-going problems are identified is to have the teacher accept responsibility for what is happening. Then the teacher and supervisor must establish some immediate outcomes towards which the teacher can begin to work in order to rectify the situation.

The process used is not confrontational. Much depends on the skill of the supervisor in being sensitive to the teacher's position and also in keeping the conversation oriented towards what must happen next. The model is characterized by the precision of the questioning employed by the supervisor. The focus is on a positive statement of outcomes and on the outlining of particular steps which must be followed in order to achieve success. The questioning strategies also strive to reduce any ambiguity in communication between the supervisor and the teacher.

CHAPTER TWO

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL SKILLS

TAPE 2 - 1 (Accession Number 2720-06)

Introduction

The importance of having effective classroom management techniques cannot be over-emphasized. Without them, the other instructional skills a teacher possesses cannot be used to much advantage. It is difficult to consider a skill in isolation as it is usually dependent upon other skills, or used in conjunction with them. For the purposes of discussion, however, several classroom management and control skills will receive our attention.

A. Rules and Routines

Teachers should have a system of rules that allows pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check with the teacher. In order to ensure that classroom operations and procedures run smoothly on a daily basis the students must have an understanding of what is expected of them. What is the acceptable noise level? Where do students hand in their work? How are materials distributed? Is there an appointed monitor or helper to assist the teacher with chores for one week at a time? Can students leave the room or sharpen pencils whenever they want to? In order to be effective, the set of rules and routines must be well understood and observed by students. Some of these rules become so automatic that it is hard for the observer to recognize them as rules and routines. Other rules may be created to suit each need as it arises. These normal, on-going rules and procedures save teaching time, contribute to the smoothness of instruction, and enable students to continue with their work with a minimum of disruption.

B. Teacher Awareness

Teachers should be aware of what is happening throughout a classroom, even though involved with an individual or small group. This will enable the teacher to spot potentially disruptive behaviour and act upon it before it becomes unmanageable. The teacher who has eyes in the back of her head manages to stop potential problems almost before they start. Consequently, it is tempting for the observer to conclude that this is an extremely cooperative class, rather than to give a lot of credit to a teacher who is doing an admirable job of circumventing problems. This teacher keeps a watchful eye and is ready to take remedial action at the first hint of a disturbance. The teacher may demonstrate awareness by:

(1) addressing the student verbally;

(2) by putting himself in close physical proximity; or,

(3) just by looking at the situation and sizing it up before deciding what to do.

Eye movements like radar-sweeping, facial expressions, and physical movement can reveal the degree of a teacher's awareness and the timeliness of corrective action. This ability to spot trouble and, subsequently, to take corrective action, is a vital skill for maintaining effective classroom control.

C. Low Key Responses for Misbehaviour

Teachers should prevent misbehaviours from continuing before they increase in severity and/or spread to and affect other children. Teachers should attempt to direct disciplinary action accurately, that is, at the child who is the primary cause of the disruption. Teachers should handle disruptive situations in a low-key manner. Disruptive or off-task students should be corrected by non-verbal behaviour such as eye-contact. The above statements could be summarized as follows:

(1) Once the teacher has made the decision to take corrective action she should do so in a low key manner.

(2) She should take action quickly and nab the right student.

Such accuracy requires a great deal of awareness on the part of the teacher. The action does not need to be verbal. Neither does it need to stop the lesson in progress nor draw undue attention to the student who is causing the distraction. The teacher reaction may involve a pointed look, a gesture, or physical proximity. If these milder corrective actions are not effective with some students, or in some situations, then a stronger, more explicit reaction must be exhibited by the teacher. However, it is desirable to use low-key methods as often as possible. A down-playing of the situation usually engenders less stress for the teacher and for other students, thereby promoting a better affective climate in the classroom. It also deprives the attention-seeker of the maximum amount of lime-light. As well, it permits on-going instruction to continue with a minimum amount of distraction, thus promoting academic use of time.

D. Circulating and Monitoring

Teachers should move around the room, monitor pupils' seatwork, and communicate to the pupils an awareness of their behaviour while also attending to their academic needs. Monitoring or circulating was one of the key behaviours exhibited by effective teachers in the large-scale observational studies. As the observer would expect, the teacher patrols around the room while the children are working at seatwork. Many things are accomplished while the teacher does this. For instance, individual help in the form of supportive, academic feedback and assistance is provided to students as they continue to work at their own desks. This is preferable to having the students line up at the teacher's desk. More personal, verbal interaction is possible. A private exchange serves to maintain a good rapport between teachers and students. The expectation that the teacher will be moving around the room tends to discourage off-task behaviour. The teacher, in turn, receives information concerning the success of the instruction to date, and this feedback allows the teacher to assess the readiness of students to move on to the next instructional stage.

TAPE 2 - 2 (Accession Number 2720-07)

The Power Struggle

Before a situation ever reaches the power struggle stage, normally a number of things have gone wrong. One can avoid having power struggles almost completely by consistently working on developing a positive, cohesive atmosphere in the classroom. Teachers can do many things to demonstrate a genuine respect and liking for students, so that when the chips are down most of the students will side with the teacher and cooperate to restore social order. Time spent in winning over the students is well invested. Also, awareness and anticipatory behaviour on the part of the teacher can circumvent many problems before they become full-blown.

At the first levels of misbehaviour, such as attention-seeking, low-key correctives may be used effectively. However, there are always some students who will push beyond this stage and teachers must then use other strategies to deal with the misbehaviour. The teacher must "bump up" disciplinary responses to match the behaviour of the student. Many factors influence the teacher's decision to utilize stronger measures but the timing and the severity of the misbehaviour often dictates the type of teacher reaction required. Squaring off, or facing the student directly, combined with eye-contact, a long pause, and then a choice, may sometimes be enough to extinguish undesirable behaviour. A discussion in private may result in the formation of a formal or informal contract between the teacher and the student and may serve to correct the situation. However, on occasion, a student will challenge a teacher so aggressively that none of these other teacher behaviours are effective. The student may refuse to do something and, as he has made his stand in front of other students, he will lose face if he backs down. At this point his emotional reaction may prevent him from cooperating in a way he normally would. Thus, the teacher is faced with participating in a power struggle.

Most teachers, being human, react emotionally to such a challenge to their authority, especially when it occurs in front of a class. It is normal to become drawn into the power struggle and to lose one's objectivity. A sense of panic is also there as one wonders if he can handle the situation successfully. Think for a moment about a policeman whose job it is to give out speeding tickets to angry motorists. He has been trained to divorce his emotions from the situation. He states the facts and offers the motorist a choice. It is this mind-set that we are after so that we can remember to go through all the necessary steps. If we get dragged in emotionally all rational thought is gone. We become pre-occupied with winning or getting even, and we do not use the strategies we know and need to use. The aim of the teacher when faced with this sort of disturbing situation should be to restore social order quickly in order that teaching may be resumed. For some teachers this takes a little reorienting because they may want to win at all costs. In fact, winning might prove to be very costly in some instances. As the power struggle is ending the teacher should be willing to let the student have the last word, or to overlook a book being slammed down as one last protest. Otherwise, it may start up all over again. When people get really angry, it takes about half an hour to return to a state of well-being. In addition, students who are watching the incident also react emotionally. This does nothing for the positive, cohesive atmosphere a teacher is trying to maintain. By developing self control, one

can get through the situation, bring it to some kind of resolution, and not disturb the class unduly.

Keeping the policeman in mind, here are the steps one should try to follow when you have been able to avoid getting into a power struggle and are faced with some type of insubordination.

1. Recognize that indeed you are in a power struggle situation. As the teacher, you may be guilty of extending the invitation to go into power.

2. When an invitation to power has been extended by the student you have a choice of ignoring the invitation, perhaps, for instance, by picking up the crumpled piece of paper yourself. Such actions are sometimes advisable.

3. You can try defusing the situation with the use of humour. Humour is a very powerful method of side-stepping the situation and preventing it from developing any further. If you are a master of the "one-liner" you are at an advantage here.

4. Do nothing. Maintain eye contact and use a long pause. If a student won't make eye contact this becomes a more difficult situation for the teacher. While you are waiting, however, you are buying time to think of what to do. You are reminding yourself of the steps you should take and you are making the student very nervous as he wonders what will happen next. Remember, take several long, deep breaths and try to maintain a calm exterior, without raising your voice. You can move the student closer to defiance by scaring or threatening him, and the hole you're in may get deeper, faster.

5. If the long pause itself does not deter the student, then state the facts briefly and your own feelings about them. For example, "Right now I am trying to teach the class and I am frustrated because you are passing notes and not paying attention."

6. If allies are trying to get involved the teacher must keep them out of the situation.

7. Specify what you want the student to do and shift the responsibility to him. "I'd like you to put the note in the garbage and pay attention so I can begin teaching again. Will you cooperate and throw the note in the garbage, please?" If the student still hesitates or refuses to do what you want, give him a choice. "Either put the note in the garbage or give it to me, please." Or, "Either throw the note in the basket and pay attention, or leave the class until you are ready to pay attention." A stronger final choice might be, "Sit or go! You choose!" "No?" "Leave on your own or with assistance from the office." Sometimes offering no choice is appropriate. "Out please." Do this as courteously as possible.

8. You may need to allow the student to save face by allowing one final gesture, which you should probably ignore.

9. At the first reasonable opportunity you should return to the student with a question to show him that, as far as you are concerned, it's over now - now that he is behaving appropriately.

10. You may wish to discuss the incident with the student later, after class, when tempers have cooled down.

CHAPTER THREE

INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS

TAPE 3 - 1 (Accession Number 2720-08)

Introduction

The teaching behaviours included in Chapter Three are observable, organizational, and instructional skills, which help to ensure the successful delivery of instruction. Each behaviour is considered separately in order to emphasize its importance but, in reality, each behaviour is used in conjunction with other skills. it could be debated that some of these behaviours included in Chapter Three more rightly belong in the classroom management category. This attests to the inherent difficulty of isolating each skill for a closer look and trying to categorize it. Our purpose is merely to draw attention to it for a while before placing the skill back in context where it belongs. In order to apply instructional skills effectively it is presumed that the basic classroom control strategies are consistently and productively used by the teacher.

In general, the skills included in this chapter deal with the organizational aspects of teaching. These include planning for instruction, optimizing academic learning time, direction-giving, clarifying instruction, motivating students, and varying the presentation of lessons.

A. Planning for Instruction

Teachers should preplan their classroom activities on a regular basis. While this would sound perfectly obvious the mere fact that it emerges from research as a statement about effective teaching means that some teachers do not engage in regular planning. Their only plan for the day is coming to school. It is usually pretty obvious to the observer whether the lesson in progress has benefitted from planning because other aspects such as clarity, use of instructional time, and student behaviour are dependent upon the planning that a teacher does, and the evidence tends to reflect any weaknesses in this regard.

The ability to plan is a key skill area in teaching. The classroom teacher must check to see that long-range planning as well as daily planning is done. The teacher should be able to demonstrate that available time has been efficiently budgeted so that required curriculum areas can be covered adequately. Seasoned teachers may not need to write detailed lesson plans on a daily basis, but for a formal observation a written lesson plan, shared with the observer in advance, helps to focus attention on the most important aspects of the lesson.

Lesson design

Madeline Hunter's work on lesson design is a very valuable resource. You are urged to review it in greater detail and to become familiar with the basic elements of lesson planning. Madeline explains that all elements should be considered but not necessarily included in a lesson. When all elements are included, because it is appropriate, the lesson is virtually assured of being successful.

We will consider these elements separately, through the use of video clips, so you can develop a clearer understanding of the terms.

Elements of lesson planning

1. Anticipatory set:

   This focuses the student on the learning. Set should contain all three of the following attributes. It should link back to past experience. The teacher might say, "Last week when we were studying complex numbers...." Also, it should force students to become actively involved. For instance, "Picture in your mind how this might look," or, "Hands up, please. How many of you have ever gone camping?" And thirdly, it should be relevant to the new learning. Whatever gimmick, story, or motivating display is used, it should be a definite tie-in to the objective the teacher is trying to achieve. Set is not merely motivational amusement. It should prepare the student mentally for the new learning ahead by focussing his attention and drawing him into the lesson.

2. Sharing objective and purpose:

   The objective and purpose lets students know what they will learn and how they will demonstrate that they have learned it. Also, this gives them the rationale for why it is important, why they should learn it, and how it fits into their goals. In some circumstances, like in a discovery-learning lesson, the teacher has an objective but may choose not to share it with the students until a later point in the lesson. Usually, the objective is shared at the beginning of the lesson. Thus, it gives the students a clear purpose for learning the new material.

3. Input:

   Input is the stage of the lesson where the teacher presents the information the student needs and indicates the methods and the materials that will be used. Input may be obtained from the teacher, other students, a text book, or an audio-visual source but, basically, it is the new information which the students are required to learn.

4. Modelling:

   Teacher modelling either gives the student the opportunity to see or hear what the end-product should look like, or, it shows the process of what is being learned. Demonstrations, models, or labels assist the student to assimilate the new information. Modelling provides a right hemispheric assist to students who need visual aids to complement the verbal input they are receiving. Modelling also focuses attention on the key elements of the new learning. The teacher may highlight certain information and draw attention to particular words or methods. The use of visual aids, gestures, and actions qualifies as modelling if it serves to illustrate and clarify what is to be learned.

5. Check for understanding:

This monitors the learning as the lesson proceeds. The teacher observes student performance and, as Hunter puts it, does some dip-sticking to check the level of oil. Basically, the intent is to find out whether the students are understanding what they are learning and whether they have the essential information in place. Usually, this checking is accomplished by questioning the students directly. If the students' answers show a lack of understanding, the teacher uses this feedback to reteach and to solidify the new learning before going any further.

TAPE 3 - 2 (Accession Number 2720-09)

(Continued from Tape 3 - 1)

6. Guided practice:

This gives the students the opportunity to try out the new learning under teacher guidance. The coach is present to provide an immediate knowledge of results, or feedback for students. As they attempt to do the work or answer the questions, the teacher gives the students feedback on whether the answer is right, or identifies the parts that are right and the parts that need reworking. This knowledge of results enables the students to change their performance in order to succeed. It also lets the teacher see how well the students have learned the material.

7. Closure:

Sometimes, as the lesson comes to an end, the teacher provides the summary of what has just been studied. This is **teacher closure.** But an even better way to end the lesson is to actively involve the students by having them provide an overt response summarizing what they have learned, not just what they have done. This wrap-up activity helps to emphasize what was important in the lesson and helps the students to internalize the information.

8. Independent practice:

This gives the student the opportunity to try out the new learning in order to develop fluency. Independent seatwork or homework are examples of this final phase of the lesson when the teacher lets the students fly on their own.

B. Optimizing Academic Learning Time

Teachers should organize and manage their classes so as to optimize academic learning time - that is, time during which pupils are actively and productively engaged in their learning tasks. One of the key indicators of teaching effectiveness is the extent to

which students are on task. It is claimed that one can learn much about a teacher by watching the students. The teacher must maintain an awareness of individual students so they may be kept on task. Not surprisingly, research supports the belief that the more time spent actively on task, the better the student achievement. By careful planning and by utilizing a set of rules and routines, instructional time won't be lost. Also, by taking advantage of isolated minutes with sponge activities, as Madeline Hunter calls those quick instructional opportunities, one makes use of all available time.

A great potential for the waste of instructional time occurs when a class is involved in transition. This may mean actually changing physical location or may simply involve moving from one subject area activity into another. Materials have to be put away and others taken out in readiness for the next lesson. Planning for the transition should be part of planning for each lesson. The teacher may be the cause of wasted time if inefficient routines are used, if classroom pace is too fast or too slow, or if sufficient preplanning has not been done.

C. Standard Signal to Begin

A standard signal for getting the attention of students must be employed and enforced consistently if time is to be used efficiently. For occasions when the noise level is up, such as an art lesson on a Friday afternoon and a P.A. announcement comes on, or when the teacher must interrupt an activity to give further directions, a non-verbal signal could be used, such as flicking the lights or having all students raise the right arm, in acknowledgement that they have seen the teacher and are ready to listen. More overt signals, such as one ding on a bell or a verbal call to attention, might be observed in the lower grades. However, there are standard signals given by the high school teacher too. Perhaps the teacher shuts the classroom door, refocuses the overhead projector, takes off a jacket and hangs it over the back of a chair, or just stands a certain way and waits; but there is some signal, however subtle, that the teacher is now ready to begin instruction. A signal is required whenever the teacher wants student attention, and an example of such a time is at the beginning of a transition.

D. Transitions

Transitions should be carefully structured, first by bringing the momentum to a halt, second, by announcing the change and allowing students to shift gears and, third, by timing it strategically. If most students are still engrossed in the previous activity, it may be advisable to stall the transition until a more appropriate moment. If the directions for the transition are numerous, then steps should be taken to reduce their complexity. They should be sequenced first. Then they could be written on the chalkboard. The first stage of the activity could be accomplished before directions are given for the next. For example, distribute the work sheets first and then give the directions.

An effective transition which moves students smoothly from one activity to the next is characterized by:

(1) a signal for attention;

(2) clear directions;

(3) if necessary, a demonstration of what is expected;

(4) a check for student understanding;

(5) a signal to begin the transition; and

(6) another signal for attention before beginning the new activity.

E. Worthwhile Seatwork

When students work independently, teachers should ensure that the assignments are interesting and worthwhile, yet still easy enough to be completed by each pupil working without teacher direction. Once a new teacher gets the hang of this, life becomes simpler. The teacher aims to challenge, not to frustrate, and she must realize that the span of attention will vary with the ability, age, and motivation of the student, not to mention the time of day. The students must perceive the assigned work to be relevant and meaningful. Instructions have to be clear enough to facilitate independent work.

Please note, this is not advocating the exclusive use of independent study for, in fact, research seems to indicate that self-paced, individualized work is negatively correlated with achievement. The observer must look for indicators, like student time-on-task behaviour or the time it takes students to accomplish the task, in order to infer whether the seatwork has been interesting and worthwhile. If the lesson preceeding the seatwork has been well-designed, the assigned seatwork should be functioning as an independent practice exercise and, therefore, students should be able to complete it without requiring more instruction and assistance from the teacher.

F. Minimize Direction-Giving

Teachers should keep to a minimum such activities as giving directions and organizing classroom instruction. One way to do this is by writing the daily schedule on the board, thereby ensuring that pupils know where to go and what to do. Listening skills should also be emphasized. If the teacher has a workable set of organizational routines established there is little need to repeat them on a daily basis. While organizational activities are, of course, necessary they contribute little to student-learning directly and, therefore, should simply be a part of the student's daily routine.

The observer should look for the teacher's overt attempts to get the lesson started and to cut short all unnecessary verbiage and diversions. By restricting the time allotted to organizational activities several objectives are accomplished. Students are obliged to listen carefully to directions and instructions, especially if they won't be repeated. This helps students to accept responsibility for beginning their work. If, on the other hand, instructions are always repeated three times, many students won't really tune in until the third time. Over time, "old faithful" turns into a nag, and then the students really don't listen anymore. If the page numbers or the exercise number are written on the board as they are being assigned, a quick reference is provided for the students and needless questions which serve no useful purpose are avoided.

G. Clarity

Teachers should provide a clear presentation of material. There are a number of ways of checking this. For example, teachers could test student understanding of a task by asking them to explain what is expected of them. This also means allowing time for questions and comments from students in case they are uncertain about the assignment. Teachers should present information to students in a clear, orderly, well-organized manner. This necessitates having a concern for sequential order in the planning stages of a lesson. If a step is omitted or inserted in the wrong place, students become confused. Good planning overcomes this by doing a task analysis and by ordering all parts of the lesson in the initial planning stage. Teachers should communicate at the pupils' level of comprehension, using language they can readily understand and explaining unfamiliar words as they are encountered. This also entails knowing the appropriate level of difficulty and designing instruction which is aimed at this level. The teacher must build on what students already know and help them make the connections between what they are learning now and their prior knowledge. The clarity for students is dependent upon the extent to which the new material has some meaning for them.

Teachers should have sufficient knowledge of subject matter. Sometimes teachers are placed in teaching positions for which they lack appropriate training. Then they deserve support and assistance to equip them for their assignment. The teacher who is comfortable with the subject matter has a command of the lesson that is readily observable. They are confident, are willing to depart from the narrow path of the lesson plan, and encourage student questions and discussion of ideas. The effective, aware teacher detects student confusion in the early stages and can back-track, perhaps by calling the students to attention and starting over again, or by repeating directions and checking for clarity before asking students to work independently. As the observer, it is relatively easy to identify when students are confused. You can assist the teacher by analyzing when the confusion occurred and how this confusion might be overcome in future lessons.

H. Begin Speaking/Stop Speaking

Teachers should not begin speaking to the group until all students are paying attention. Making eye contact with students and waiting pointedly for students to pay attention is a first step. A "Thank you," politely delivered to a straggler, emphasizes that total attention is appreciated. Perhaps naming a student or two will also be required before beginning instruction. If a teacher talks over small noises, he will soon find himself

talking over larger noises and, eventually, he may have to yell to be heard. This, of course, is not recommended. If five students in a class of twenty-five are not attending then twenty per cent of the class is not listening to the teacher. The teacher should stop talking and bring the non-attenders back into the lesson by using a non-verbal technique or by making an appropriate verbal statement. Also, teachers should instruct a contributing student to stop speaking until all other students are paying attention. In order to encourage respect for peers, students must be required to listen while other students make verbal contributions to the lesson.

I. Large Group Instruction

Teachers should spend at least one third to one half of their time instructing larger groups of pupils - that is, more than eight pupils. When they do teach smaller groups, or individuals, they should take steps to ensure that the other students in the class have work to which they can attend. Hence, the importance of assigning appropriate and worthwhile seatwork. Observational classroom research indicates that the more effective teachers spend a greater percentage of their time teaching larger groups of students. This negates the importance of individualized instruction we have been encouraging in the past. Follow-up activities can be individualized, but the initial presentation should be made to the whole class in a direct teaching mode. While small group and individualized instruction do have advantages in particular circumstances and do require specific teaching skills, the exclusive use of a decentralized approach appears to have a negative correlation with student achievement results. It appears that the more effective teachers pitch instruction to the greater number of students and then individualize instruction later, at the guided practice and independent seatwork stage.

J. Variety In Instructional Techniques

Teachers should use a variety of instructional techniques, adapting instruction in an attempt to meet the learning needs of individual students. Examples of some varied instructional techniques would be lecturing, changing group size, discussion, and use of audio-visual aids, etc. Variety in the presentation of lessons serves to heighten student interest and may be used as a motivational technique in itself. Variety in presentation may simply include gestures, tone of voice, or attention to the clothing and personal appearance of the teacher. Variety in instruction demonstrates a flexibility in approach on the part of the teacher and a willingness to accommodate learning styles of students who actually require differing modes of instruction in order to learn. A growing awareness that many students benefit from teaching aimed at the right brain hemisphere has prompted teachers to use more models, teaching aids, and two-dimensional illustrations on the chalkboard or overhead projector, as well as to include actions and gestures which reinforce instruction for these particular students. In short, we have always understood that a picture is worth a thousand words, and utilizing a variety of instructional techniques not only maintains student interest but also helps to accommodate differences in learning styles.

TAPES 3 - 3 and 3 - 4 (Accession Numbers 2720-10 and 2720-11)

Student Engaged Time

Much can be inferred about a teacher's level of proficiency by watching the time-on-task behaviour of students. As an observer, you may wish to concentrate exclusively on students to determine their role of engagement. If you do this you will not be able to pay strict attention to what the teacher is doing, except to note the background context and the task assigned to students. It is possible to rotate your observation cyclically around the same few students in order to collect data on their use of time during the class period. Move your attention back and forth among the selected students and take notes on their on-task behaviour. Later, by examining your notes, it should be possible to determine the percentage of time the students remained on task during the observation period.

CHAPTER FOUR

VERBAL INTERACTION SKILLS

TAPE 4 - 1 (Accession Number 2720-12)

Introduction

Both the quality and quantity of interaction, or the kind and amount, tend to vary between the teacher and an individual student. Some students actually receive very little verbal attention from the teacher. This can be tracked, as you observe, by keeping a record of verbal exchanges. Often, a teacher is unaware of this inequity.

Affective reactions tend to be reciprocal between the teacher and a student and the nature of their verbal exchanges can reflect this, both positively and negatively. The tone used may convey affective feelings. Teachers hold academic achievement expectations for students, and these may be revealed by the number and type of verbal exchanges. Higher level questions may be posed to the brighter students. More wait-time for an answer might be allowed because the teacher expects the brighter students to respond correctly, given time and some prompting. A study of verbal exchange may indicate that questions need up-grading or that too many non-instructional questions are being asked.

In all, verbal interaction is a promising area for examination during classroom observation. This may be facilitated by tape-recording a lesson in progress and then analyzing with the teachers the verbal exchanges that occurred.

A. Selection of Students

Teachers should avoid calling on volunteers more than 10-15% of the time during question and answer sessions. It is also advisable to discourage pupil "call-outs." If the teacher relies completely on volunteers to answer questions, the same six students may monopolize all the verbal interaction in the question and answer period. For various reasons, some students do not choose to volunteer in a public setting, but should be encouraged to do so. Utilizing strategies that engage the non-volunteer may over-come this hesitancy, provided the teacher helps the student to experience success during the verbal exchange. Pre-selecting the student, that is, naming him before posing the question, is another way of involving the non-volunteer. The teacher may tick off the names on a class list to ensure that all students are included during the course of a lesson.

It is fairly natural to avoid certain areas of the classroom, such as the four corners. A conscious effort must be made to pose questions in these directions. Also, moving around the room during the lesson helps to ensure that the teacher will involve more students verbally.

Some students will usurp answering opportunities by calling out responses when it is not their turn. Unless it is a brainstorming activity when all answers are invited, the teacher should monitor this tendency in order to provide fair opportunities for all students and an equal sharing of teacher attention.

B. Sustaining Responses

Teachers should aim at getting the child to give some kind of response to a question. Rephrasing, giving clues, or asking a new question can be useful techniques for bringing forth answers from a previously silent student, from one who says "I don't know," or from one who answers incorrectly. Verbal interactions which end with teacher affirmation of the correct answer, or with the teacher asking another student for the answer, are terminal in nature. This means that no further contact is made with the student at that time. Those interactions which are prolonged with the student, because the teacher gives a clue or hint or asks an additional probing question, are considered to be sustaining responses. More effective teachers use sustaining responses whenever possible to extend the pupil's answer or to diagnose why there has been a misunderstanding. By responding positively to the efforts of the learner, the teacher builds up self-confidence in the student. A supportive, encouraging prompt from the teacher may enable the student to get the right answer this time and to volunteer next time. Risk-taking behaviour is encouraged when the teacher accepts all responses and works with the student to a successful conclusion. Some teachers actually use a wrong answer as a teaching opportunity to review the concept taught and to work through the process one more time with the student in order to arrive at the correct answer.

C. Question Types

Teachers should use an appropriate mixture of low and high order questions. Low order questions should be asked primarily when basic, factual material is being dealt with in order to ensure that a basis for higher-order conceptualization has been laid. Higher order questions can then be used to enlarge on basic concepts. Madeline Hunter feels that we don't stretch students enough. We frequently stop at the factual recall or comprehension level of questioning, and then move right along to the acquisition of new factual material. The types of questions that might be appropriate in a lesson depend, to a large extent, on the subject matter being taught and the teacher's objective for the lesson. We should concentrate on up-grading our questioning skills so that we can encourage students to apply their understandings to a new situation, to integrate and synthesize their knowledge as well as to analyze information, and to evaluate the worth of what they learn. If teachers are to extend students beyond mere rote learning, memorization, and regurgitation of facts, they have to refine their questioning skills to challenge students more. Of course, basic factual knowledge must be in place before this extension is possible. By studying question categories and their purposes and by working on the wording of questions, teachers can ask more thought-provoking questions which force students to make much better use of the knowledge they have.

D. Praise and Criticism

Teachers should use praise to reward outstanding work as well as to encourage students who are not always able to do outstanding work. Teachers should only use mild criticism, on occasion, in order to communicate higher expectations to more able students. Most teachers are well aware of the virtues of positive reinforcement in the learning situation. The use of praise contributes to a positive climate or feeling tone

in the classroom, where the teacher is supportive of student effort and where more effort generally leads to greater success. No one is too old to appreciate praise and, as observers, we should remember to be supportive of teachers in our work with them. Conversely, the use of criticism, on the whole, is to be discouraged. On occasion, it may work to some advantage with a competent student who is capable of performing better. In general, however, it is not a strategy that works well with students.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

TAPE 5 - 1 (Accession Number 2720-13)

Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the identification and assessment of those teacher qualities which are more global in nature and which are a composite of several, more specific teaching behaviours. The observer tends to rely heavily on intuition, or a sixth sense, when assessing these qualities in a teacher. It has been well substantiated from "process-product" research, to date, that the most effective teachers are given high ratings on all of these over-arching qualities. The variables included in Chapter Five are sometimes called high inference variables because the data collected to substantiate their existence are not easily agreed upon by two or more observers. By contrast, low inference data can be more readily counted, perhaps by using a check list, and fewer discrepancies occur between two observers. Inferences don't have to be made as the data speak for themselves. A rating on a high inference variable should only be assigned after considerable thinking, not tally counting, has been done.

Longer periods of time are involved in observing for these more global teaching qualities. For example, inferences about the degree of teacher warmth sometimes have to be made on the basis of a fleeting smile, a subtle wink, the amount of time spent with a student, or just a feeling that this teacher genuinely cares about these students. These less obvious behaviours are only apparent, and then with difficulty, through careful observation over time. Discrepancies can occur when two people attempt to evaluate a dimension like teacher warmth because it is often difficult to articulate the basis for this decision. By comparison, a teacher's clarity is more easily assessed.

The variables included in Chapter Five are not uniformly interpersonal skill variables, but they could be considered as the final summing up of all the other teaching behaviours we have considered. Most of the variables discussed in the other chapters fit relatively comfortably under one of these more global umbrella variables. These final nine categories might serve as an all-encompassing set of attributes on which to base an assessment of teaching behaviour. The successful integration of many skills that work effectively in the classroom accounts for superior teaching performance. Following is a list of the nine more global variables, as well as a description of the kinds of teaching behaviours which are believed to be their indicators.

A. Clarity

Clarity could be defined as the extent to which a teacher's meaning is clear in presentations to the class. A rating for teacher clarity would be dependent upon many teaching behaviours which cause instruction to be presented in a logical and effective way. The teacher's use of precise language, good enunciation, and clear directions

help to avoid ambiguity and to maximize learning time. The forethought in developing lesson plans helps to clarify the purpose of instruction for both the teacher and the student. The opportunities provided by the teacher for students to clarify assignments and concepts taught would also serve as indicators of teacher clarity.

B. Overlappingness

This behaviour is required of a juggler, who must keep several items in the air at once. Teaching is a complex task. Thus, those teachers who are able to take care of several tasks at the same time are well ahead of the game. Having students involved in group work is one example of overlappingness for, while working with one group, the teacher must have students in other groups profitably engaged in a task that is interesting and worthwhile. The ability to deal with more than one task at one time presumes an awareness of situations and a workable set of classroom management skills.

C. Withitness

This teacher characteristic includes the awareness behaviour from Chapter Two. A teacher displays evidence that she does see the actions of students and does react to them. Misbehaviour is not permitted to continue but a corrective action of some kind is initiated immediately. Preferably, this will be a non-verbal type of action. The observer will notice teacher eye-movements which indicate that she is scanning the class regularly in order to spot trouble before it has a real chance to start. As a preventative course of action the teacher is on the move around the classroom. Since this is expected by the students less off-task behaviour occurs. This monitoring serves to discourage misbehaviour and it communicates to the students that the teacher has an awareness of and an interest in their behaviour. Withitness also implies a more general awareness of the readiness levels of students and of the kinds of activities that would provide appropriate learning experiences for them. Teachers who are quick on the draw, or who have eyes in the back of their heads, are with it. They do not miss much.

D. Smoothness

Smoothness is described as the extent to which a teacher facilitates the smooth flow of a lesson, or a smooth transition from one particular activity to another. This teacher characteristic ties in with the use of time. It is the ability to keep things moving in a way which allows students to proceed from one activity to the next without feeling rushed or disoriented and which maximizes learning time. Certain teaching behaviours interfere with smoothness and are to be avoided. Such behaviours include changing one's mind midstream, interrupting a lesson in progress to return to the previous lesson, or confusing students with procedures that are not well planned. Allowing long pauses or digressions from the topic at hand also interferes with the continuity or the smoothness of instruction.

E. Warmth and F. Empathy

These will be considered together, even though there is a slight difference between the terms. Warmth is defined as the extent to which teachers provide evidence of caring, accepting, and valuing of the students. Empathy is described as the extent to which the teacher responds accurately to both obvious and less obvious meanings, feelings, and experiences. Warmth is the teacher's affective response to students. Observers find it difficult to agree on the indicators but one might see a smile, some

twinkling eye contact, the use of supportive praise, or physical proximity as evidence of warmth. A respect and concern for students should be displayed if a teacher is judged to be warm. Also, a sense of humour could be in evidence. The observer might note informal, friendly, social contacts with students before and after class. The teacher displaying empathy has to be sensitive enough to understand how the student feels and be able to put herself in the position of the student. The teacher acknowledges the particular problems and needs of the students, including home problems, but without pity. The teacher can make allowances for these individual differences and assist the student to experience success in school.

G. Momentum

Momentum is described as the extent to which the teacher's behaviour maintains the pace of the lesson. Specific lessons require a change of pace in keeping with their purpose. A snappy math drill is an example of a fast paced lesson. Too slow a pace encourages lagging behaviour on the part of the student. By over-dwelling on instructions and unnecessary preliminary activities, the teacher can slow down the pace of learning and, hence, not maximize learning time. Being conscious of the appropriateness of the pace is required, for the teacher can make adjustments while she is teaching and improve the effectiveness of instruction.

H. Persuasiveness

This is the extent to which a teacher is able to motivate children. This does not refer to negative coercion, such as threatening to phone the student's parents, but rather to the personal magnetism or charisma that certain teachers just naturally possess. Their enthusiasm, demonstrated for the lesson and for teaching in general, is infectious. Students will pick up on it too if, into the bargain, they are supported, encouraged, and treated with respect. Such a teacher conveys a genuine interest in the subject matter and an eagerness to work on activities with the students. Somehow, she takes all the drudgery out of seatwork. A teacher who is persuasive has students eating out of her hand.

I. Respect

Teachers should recognize the positive characteristics and the limitations of individual students and should treat all students with fairness and respect. The teacher should foster positive attitudes among students which assist in the development of social skills. The teacher serves as an influential role-model for the student. The ways in which a teacher reacts to situations and the opinions a teacher chooses to express may be internalized by students. It is vital that the modelling a teacher exhibits is worthy of emulation. Teachers should take responsibility for teaching social skills, for encouraging the exploration of feelings and attitudes, and for incorporating this hidden curriculum into on-going instruction. As students learn the kinds of social behaviours which are acceptable and appropriate they become more sensitive to and considerate of the feelings and needs of others.

TAPE 5 - 2 (Accession Number 2720-14)

Teacher Handling Of Controversial Issues

Sometimes a teacher finds himself embroiled in a class discussion which takes him into uncharted territory. Lessons including material that relates to religious beliefs or morals and customs would be examples of this type. Keeping the discussion open-ended and allowing students to present facts and opinions requires skill because the teacher probably has his own personal viewpoint on the issue. Following the middle-of-the-road is frequently the best course of action. Certain curriculum subject areas, if adopted for use within a school district, require the teacher to handle some rather interesting topics. Sticking to facts without passing judgement or moralizing can be a challenge.

AUDIO-VISUAL AND INSERVICE MATERIALS

Section I: Mireau, Dr. Laurie. Extracted from "Additional Resources." In **A Trainer's Manual for Evaluating and Improving Teaching Performance: Inservice Kit.** Edmonton: Regional Office of Education, November 1985.

Section II: Yuzdepski, Iris, and Linda Elliott. Extracted from "Teacher Effectiveness: Annotated Bibliography and References." In **Planning for an Evaluation of Teaching Performance, Volume II.** Edmonton: Planning Services Branch, Alberta Education, August 1985.

SECTION I

Check both the bibliography in the Mireau Manual and also in the companion document, **Planning for an Evaluation of Teaching Performance** (Alberta Education). Many of the resources contained therein are journal articles on specific topics, while others are books dealing with supervision in general. Several of these deserve to be highlighted because of their utility and readability. The small paperback books edited by Willard Duckett, for example, are valuable resources.

It is sometimes difficult to order American educational books through regular bookstores in Alberta. We have experienced more prompt and efficient service by using the following method. Call Seattle Pacific University Bookstore at (206) 281-2136. Give your VISA number and address and they will send the order. Obviously there would be merit in placing a large order so you can take advantage of more economical shipping costs per book. You might inquire whether the per book price decreases when more than 10 copies are ordered.

Several other books are certainly worth obtaining and reading thoroughly and these could be ordered by using the above method.

Teaching Makes a Difference
Carol Cummings
Published by TEACHING
331 - 8th Avenue South
Edmonds, WA. 98020
1980, 1981.

Managing to Teach
Carol Cummings
(Same publisher and Address)
1983.

Looking in Classrooms, Third Edition
Thomas L. Good and Jere E. Brophy
Harper & Row Publishers, New York
1984.

Influencing With Integrity
Genie Laborde
Palo Alto, California
Syntony Publishing,
1984.

By writing to TIP (Theory Into Practice) Publications, P.O. Box 514, El Segundo, California, 90245, you can order all the Madeline Hunter books including:

Improved Teaching
Motivation
Reinforcement
Retention
Teach More - Faster!
Transfer

Order films to accompany books from:

Special Purpose Films
416 Rio Del Mar
Aptos, CA 95003
(Free film catalogues available upon request)

Madeline Hunter's list of films includes:

Aide-ing in Education
Appraisal of the Teaching Process
Effective Practice
Elements of Successful Instruction
Getting Ready
Helping Children Improve Their Decision-Making
Lesson Analysis and the Instructional Conference
Making Behavioral Objectives Meaningful
Reading for Analysis
Reading to Develop Sight Vocabulary
Steps in Teaching - and, What Happens When You Miss One
Teach for Transfer
Teaching to Develop Independent Learners
Teach More - Faster!
The Problem Class
Translating Theory into Classroom Practice
Working with the Beginning Teacher

Order Master Teaching Videotapes from:

Instructional Dynamics Inc.
845 Via De La Paz, Suite A177
Pacific Palisades, CA 90272

(Come with set of 20 books)

Both Project TEACH (Teacher Effectiveness and Classroom Handling) and Project PRIDE (Professional Refinement in Developing Effectiveness) are sponsored and operated through the Alberta Teachers' Association. These courses complement the teacher effectiveness skills included in the manual and provide for skill training which is equally useful to both teachers and observers of teaching.

Strategies of Effective Teaching

8 videotapes (30 min.) 1 videotape (60 min.), VHS, teacher's guide: 1978.

Lessons in the series deal with every major subject area in classes from K-6. Titles in this series are:

(1) Overview: Teaching Operations and Associated Strategies
(2) Attention, Curiosity, Motivation
(3) Increasing Student Participation
(4) Questioning Techniques and Policy
(5) Integration of Teaching Strategies
(6) Individual Teaching Styles
(7) Applied Observation and Analysis
(8) Application to the Classroom

At the beginning of each half-hour program, Dr. Orme (professor, researcher, and creator of Strategies of Effective Teaching) gives background information or defines a basic strategy. Viewers then watch real teachers using the strategy in unrehearsed, unscripted lessons. The one hour program presents five uninterrupted lessons, kindergarten through grade five, taught by teachers who appear in earlier programs. Dr. Orme then discusses ways for viewers to analyze the lessons. Available: AIT Collection.

Effective Teaching for Higher Achievement

2 videotapes (each 50 min.), Beta or VHS, leader's guide: 1984.

Part I, Academic Learning Time, gives the main characteristics of effective teaching and components of academic learning time. Researchers explain how the research was conducted and suggest peer observation for feedback on use of time. Part 2, Organizing the Classroom, gives an explanation of academic learning time and portrays preventative techniques of effective teachers. Part 3, Influencing Study Behaviour, discusses "low profile" interventions that conserve instructional time, the effective use of praise, recent research on behaviour modification, and classroom incentive systems. Part 4, Teacher Expectations, explains how expectations influence teacher behaviour and offers techniques to increase participation by all students. Part 5, Daily Review, Presentation, Guided Practice, presents the first three of Barak Rosenshine's six functions of effective teaching. Part 6, Feedback, Independent Practice Periodic Reviews, presents Rosenshine's other three functions. Available: ASCD.

The Supervisory Process: Helping Teachers to Improve Instruction

1 videotape (30 min.), Beta or VHS, leader's guide: 1978.

Procedures and practices shown in this videotape grow out of theoretical work in the areas of motivation, leadership, organization and communication. The process most closely parallels the clinical supervision model.

In the program, a typical teacher and supervisor simulate the five stages of the clinical supervision model: the pre-observation conference, observation, analysis and strategy, the post-observation conference, and post-conference analysis. The supervisor serves as an observer for the teacher, and the process is used to help the teacher identify specific instructional patterns in the classroom. Through self-evaluation and suggestions made by the supervisor, the teacher recognizes the need to vary, enhance, or modify future lessons. Available: ASCD.

SECTION II

Plans, Organization, and Implementation

Analyzing Learning Outcomes

1 filmstrip, 1 sound cassette, 1 booklet: 1969.

In this program, techniques of task analysis are applied to learning objectives. Practice is provided so that an operation objective can be analyzed into subtests, designated as either entry or enroute skills. Use of a particular strategy is advocated in which instruction is approached in terms of learners' response rather than teacher presentations. Available: Library Services.

Conceptualizing the Process of Instruction

1 film reel (8 min.), 2 teacher's guides, 31 booklets, 1 overview, 1 evaluation report: 1972.

The materials in this kit are designed to assist teachers in analyzing and categorizing variables which occur in instructional situations. Available: Library Services.

Essentially Yours: Content Selection

1 videocassette (13 min.), (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Examines the criteria used as a base for content selection in a study unit. Available: Library Services.

Essentially Yours: Evaluation

1 videocassette, (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Reflects three major objectives: to develop an effective means of communicating to the classroom teacher the essence of planning instruction for students, to experiment with a system on ways of supporting the continuing education needs of teachers, and to change, while improvising. Available: Library Services.

Essentially Yours: Generalizing

1 videocassette (13 min.), (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Shows how a teacher should be able to design learning activities which develop the children's ability to generalize. Available: Library Services.

Essentially Yours: Openers

1 videocassette (15 min.), (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Develops the definition of 'openers,' as an integral part of the study unit. Available: Library Services.

Essentially Yours: Teaching-Learning Strategies

1 videocassette (18 min.), (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Identifies learning-inquiry operations, data gathering, data organization, data using, and presents teaching-learning strategies for students' skill development in the study unit. Available: Library Services.

Evaluating and Reporting Student Progress

1 filmstrip, 1 audiotape, 1 booklet: 1973.

This kit takes a look at the evaluation of the student, provides evaluation guidelines, samples of report cards, and takes a look at providing incentives for students. (Model Schools Project.) Available: Library Services.

Evaluation

1 filmstrip, 1 sound cassette, 1 booklet: 1967.

This program discusses a rigorous system for assessment of teaching. Test construction, item sampling, and interpretation of student performance data are given attention, and the critical role of preassessment of learner competency is emphasized. The viewer learns to select and construct test items appropriate to given objectives, to design both formal and informal pre-assessment procedures, and to make appropriate inferences regarding instruction based on data obtained from his students. Available: Library Services.

The Impact of the Classroom Environment

1 film reel (17 min.): 1979.

This film looks at the physical and emotional environment that a teacher can create in a classroom. It describes how the teacher uses the students and the space to create a particular environment. In addition, it describes how a teacher uses these items to create security for the student and increase the students' environment. Available: Library Services.

Instructional Tactics for Affective Goals

1 filmstrip, 1 sound cassette, 1 booklet: 1971.

Operating on the assumption that effective instructional goals are perhaps the most important that classroom teachers can accomplish, this program describes the general nature of three instructional tactics which are particularly useful for promoting the attainment of affective goals; specifically, modeling, contiguity, and reinforcement. Available: Library Services.

Lesson Organization

1 videocassette (28 min., 39 sec.): 1980.

In this tape we see the teacher, Mary Ann Gillese-Schmidt, and her Grade 10 English class at Austin O'Brien High School. The student is to look for the following characteristics of a well organized lesson: review, orientation to task, stated objectives, signals of transition, emphasis, clarity, comprehension checking personal organization and summary of the lesson. Available: University of Alberta.

Mondays, Marbles, and Chalk

8 videotapes (3/4" VHS - each approx. 50 min.), workbooks, leader manuals: 1984.

This participatory series of eight video programs is designed specifically to help enhance and improve elementary school teachers' class management and discipline techniques. The tapes examine management strategies (preventative, supportive, corrective), personal and professional role use in the classroom, classroom climate, the child's basic human needs, family relationships and home atmosphere as a shared staff responsibility. Available: Marlin Motion Pictures, Ltd.

Organizing Facts to Teach Meaningful Relationships

1 film reel (15 min.), 2 teachers' guides, 31 booklets, 1 overview, 1 evaluation report: 1972.

The film and related materials in this kit present the viewer with questions and two classroom situations intended to produce understanding of strategies involved in teaching for concept development and other forms of higher level learning. It also attempts to assist recognition by teachers of any new knowledge structures which have been attained by learners. Available: Library Services.

Teacher's Expectations

What the Teacher Expects

1 film reel (27 min.): n.d.

Dr. Rosenthal (Harvard) and Dr. S. Rabensvitch (McGill) discuss the importance and application of "self-fulfilling prophecy": a person will perform according to that which is expected of them. Experiments with students in teaching reading, combined with teacher expectations, provide the basis for a panel in which teachers discuss expectations and performance. Available: Library Services.

Teacher's Awareness

Body Language in Classroom

1 film reel (16 min.): 1973.

The film moves from the general description of body language to classroom use of body language. The teachers filmed employ body language to further their effectiveness as teachers. Some tips on the use of body language are given. Available: Library Services.

Withitness (Junior High)

1 videocassette (20 min., 38 sec.): 1980.

Withitness is a classroom management concept that is based on the principle that teachers who are aware of what is going on in their classrooms are more likely to have their students engaged in on-task behaviour and less likely to have them engaged in deviant behaviour. This tape shows four behaviour indicators of withitness: desist, concurrent praise, suggest alternate behaviour, and description of desirable behaviour. The tape is an edited version of a lesson taught by Mrs. Louise Covey of D.S. MacKenzie Junior High School, Edmonton. Available: University of Alberta.

Whithitness (Elementary School)

1 videocassette (20 min. 4 sec.: 1980.

Withitness is a classroom management concept that is based on the principle that teachers who are aware of what is going on in their classroom are more likely to have their students engaged in on-task behaviour and less likely to be engaged in deviant behaviour. This tape shows four behaviour indicators of withitness: desist, concurrent praise, suggest alternate behaviour, and description of desirable behaviour. The tape is an edited version of a lesson taught by Mrs. Darlene Hernstedt, John Barnett Elementary School, Edmonton. Available: University of Alberta.

Classroom Management

Assertive Discipline in the Classroom

1 film reel (29 min.): 1978.

This film describes an effective plan for establishing discipline in the classroom. Based on a system of rewards rather than a series of punishments, with a plan of implementation for the classroom, the assertive discipline program creates a controllable teaching environment. Available: Library Services.

Behavior Management Procedures for the Classroom

1 videocassette (14 min., 45 sec.): 1979.

Dr. Larry MacDonald presents four behaviour-management procedures and their components. The four procedures are Praise, Ignore, Disapproval, and Time-Out. A negative example of each procedure is shown and discussed in light of its components and then a positive example of the procedure is demonstrated. The examples are from a classroom at the Evelyn Unger School for Language and Learning Development, with teacher Karen Baine. Available: University of Alberta.

Behavior Modifications in the Classroom

1 film reel (25 min.): 1970.

This film studies several children in elementary school and a class in junior high school who are experiencing behaviour problems. An analysis of the children's problems and teacher behaviour, as well as a follow-through to a program of changing teacher response and the reinforcement of desirable behaviour, is examined. Ways of motivating individuals in the classroom environment are discussed by teachers involved in this program. Available: Library Services.

Behavioral Case Management

1 videocassette (23 min.): 1976.

This tape suggests and illustrates a four step procedure for managing behaviour problems. The first step, Information Gathering, is sub-divided into six sections. A behavioural check list is generated from medical and informal questioning. The second section involves Diagnosis and, in this case, the selection of a token economy program as an appropriate corrective measure. Proper Programming for the token economy is the third step and good follow-up is the fourth. This program was prepared and narrated by the counsellor, Lloyd Allen. Available: University of Alberta.

Glasser on Discipline

1 film reel (28 min.): 1972.

Dr. William Glasser describes in a lecture his views on discipline. He feels that an undisciplined child is the result of a lack of knowledge of the child's needs, capabilities, wants and desires. This film describes in detail the methods used to implement this approach. Available: Library Services.

Glasser on Schools

1 film reel (19 min.): 1978.

This is an introduction to Dr. William Glasser's no-failure approach to education. The film offers insights into typical school problems and why they exist. It also deals with the matter of failure in school and what to do about it. Available: Library Services.

Learner Accountability

1 videocassette (18 min., 3 sec.): 1980.

Learner Accountability is a concept in classroom management. If the teacher makes children accountable for their learning, there is greater pupil involvement in work and less deviant behaviour. This videotape shows three behavioural indicators of learner accountability: goal directed prompts, work showing, and peer involvement. The tape shows an edited version of a Grade 9 language arts class at Woodhaven Jr. High school, Spruce Grove, Alberta, taught by Mr. Chuck Allen. Available: University of Alberta.

Protocol Modules on Classroom Management (Overview). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1977. ERIC. ED 167 546.

These protocol modules on classroom management include four 16mm. films, one Instructor's Manual and one copy of each of the student manuals on the four areas covered: 1) Group Alerting; 2) Learning Accountability; 3) Transitions; 4) Withitness. This material has been tested and is used by the University of South Florida with their graduate students in education. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice R & D Outcomes.

Feedback to Pupils

Effective Communication Skills #1: Paraphrasing

1 videocassette (25 min., 56 sec.): 1977.

Ken McMillan, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, defines the term 'Paraphrasing' and introduces examples of how it is used to show interest in what is said and if a statement is understood correctly. Mrs. Sigrid Hundleby, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, responds to stories and short statements by upper elementary students, in an effort to show the viewer of this videotape how paraphrasing works effectively in promoting interpersonal communication. The viewer is also given a chance to paraphrase statements made by students without the added responses of Mrs. Hundleby. This tape is one of a series of three tapes on effective communication skills. The other programs are 'Reflection of Feelings' and 'Open-ended Questions.' Available: University of Alberta.

Effective Communication Skills #2: Reflection on Feelings

1 videocassette (26 min., 47 sec.): 1977.

Ken McMillan, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, defines the term 'Reflection of Feelings' and introduces examples of how it is used to show persons you are aware of their feelings and are understanding their statements. Mrs. Sigrid Hundleby, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, responds to stories and short statements by upper elementary students in an effort to show the viewer of this videotape how reflection of feelings works effectively in promoting interpersonal communication. The viewer is also given a chance to use reflection of feelings with statements made by students without the added responses of Mrs. Hundleby. This tape is one of a series of three tapes on effective communication skills. The other programs are 'Paraphrasing' and 'Open-ended Questions.' Available: University of Alberta.

Effective Communication Skills #3: Open-Ended Questions

1 videocassette (24 min. 43 sec.): 1977.

Ken McMillan, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, defines the term "Open-ended Questions" and introduces examples of how it is used to encourage a person to keep talking without interrupting him. Mrs. Sigrid Hundleby, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, responds to stories and short statements by upper elementary students in an effort to show the viewer of this videotape how open-ended questions work effectively in promoting interpersonal communication. The viewer is also given a chance to use open-ended questions without the added responses of Mrs. Hundleby. This tape is one of a series of three tapes on effective communication skills. The other programs are "Reflection of Feelings" and "Paraphrasing." Available: University of Alberta.

Fair Verbal Behavior

1 film reel (15 min.), 2 teachers' guides, 1 overview, 31 booklets, 1 evaluation report: 1972.

The film in this kit presents two contrasting classroom situations relating to fair verbal behaviour. The materials are designed to assist teachers in analyzing both the existence and the effects of fair and unfair verbal behaviour. Available: Library Services.

Verbal interaction in the Cognitive Dimension

1 film reel (15 min.), 1 teacher's guide, 30 booklets, 1 overview, 1 evaluation report: 1972.

This kit attempts to help teachers recognize the characteristics of verbal interaction, to identify a unit of analysis, and to differentiate between teacher verbal behaviours that are task-oriented and those that are role-expectancy-oriented. In addition, the material tries to help teachers differentiate generally between study responses that are productive and those that reproduce the teacher's behaviour, to hypothesize relationships between teacher verbal behaviours and student responses, and to recognize and be able to analyze teacher openness as a variable in interaction. Available: Library Services.

Clarity of Instruction

Clarity and Emphasis

1 videocassette (19 min., 44 sec.): 1980.

A teacher's use of language can affect pupil achievement. Two concepts relating to teacher language are clarity and emphasis. This videotape shows a teacher displaying two behavioural indicators for clarity, namely, defining new words and using precise language, and three behavioural indicators for emphasis, namely, modulating one's voice, paraphrasing, and emphasizing. The teacher is Mr. Dan Green at McKee Elementary School, Edmonton. Available: University of Alberta.

Praise and Encouragement/Criticism

Praise and Corrective Feedback

1 videocassette (18 min., 35 sec.): 1980.

The quality of classroom interaction can be improved by the teacher's use of praise and corrective feedback. Two techniques of praise, verbal and nonverbal, and four techniques of corrective feedback, cueing, giving directions,

maintaining responses, and probing, are exemplified in this lesson taught by Bob Bowen at Grace Martin Elementary School, Edmonton. Available: University of Alberta.

Questioning Techniques

Effective Communication Skills #3: Open-Ended Questions

1 videocassette (24 min. 43 sec.): 1977.

Ken McMillan, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, defines the term "Open-ended Questions" and introduces examples of how it is used to encourage a person to keep talking without interrupting him. Mrs. Sigrid Hundleby, a graduate student in Educational Psychology, responds to stories and short statements by upper elementary students in an effort to show the viewer of this videotape how open-ended questions work effectively in promoting interpersonal communication. The viewer is also given a chance to use open-ended questions without the added responses of Mrs. Hundleby. This tape is one of a series of three tapes on effective communication skills. The other program are "Reflection of Feelings" and "Paraphrasing." Available: University of Alberta.

Essentially Yours: Concept Development

1 videocassette (20 min.), (Essentially Yours series): 1972.

Examines concept formation and the importance of questioning. Available: Library Services.

Levels of Questioning

1 videocassette (25 min., 9 sec.): 1980.

In this tape we see Mrs. Mary Ann Gilese-Schmidt and her English 30 class at Austin O'Brien High School. Using a lesson on essays we see her using and sequencing lower order questions involving memory and higher order questions which call on the student to translate, interpret, apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate. Available: University of Alberta.

Effective Questioning: Elementary Level (Minicourse 1). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1976. ERIC. ED 167 531.

A description of an inservice self-instructional minicourse intended to give teachers knowledge of and practice in using specific questioning techniques that increase students' participation and learning during class discussion. The classroom techniques include redirection, refocusing, handling incorrect

responses, pausing, using higher cognitive questions, asking for clarification, and reducing teacher behaviour that interferes with the flow of class discussion. Information is provided on the purposes and content of the course and materials as well as activities and resources. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D. Outcomes.

Effective Questioning Techniques (Implementive Module 3). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1977. ERIC. ED 166 189.

The inservice learning module described here focuses on testing the teacher's understanding of and skill in using effective questioning techniques in the classroom. Inservice topics addressed include methods of verbal and non verbal accepting or encouraging, probing techniques, and methods of asking effective questions. This description provides information on the purposes and content of the module as well as activities and resources. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

Higher Cognitive Questioning (Minicourse 9). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1976. ERIC. ED 167 530.

The teacher inservice minicourse described here is designed to increase the teacher's use of higher cognitive questions, which helps develop student ability to think and is primarily concerned with analysis, synthesis, and evaluation questions. Information is provided on the purposes and content of the course and materials, as well as activities and resources involved. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

Questioning Skills (Cluster V; 5 Modules — A Summary). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, March, 1977. ERIC. ED 169 064.

The described learning module is designed for teachers and educators who wish to improve their techniques of inquiry and questioning. The scope and sequencing of topics are described as well as the activities and resources involved in its use. Ordering information is provided and a critique of the module is included. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

Questioning That Turns Students On Rather Than Off. Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, February, 1977. ERIC. ED 171 685.

The programmed materials for inservice teacher education described in this document are designed to make the teacher think about questioning techniques and learn some of the principles of good questioning procedures. The program is designed as a home study course. This report provides further information on the purposes and content of the program as well as activities and resources involved.

A critique, history of development, and ordering information are also included. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

The User of Higher Level Questions (Module 2). Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1977. ERIC. ED 169 002.

The learning module described is designed for preservice and inservice classroom teachers interested in improving their questioning skills. It may be used by teachers at all grade levels. The scope and content of the module are outlined, and the activities and resources involved in its use are described. A critique of the module and ordering information are also included. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

The Use of Questioning in Social Studies. Description of Teacher Inservice Education Materials, 1977. ERIC. ED 169 063.

The intent of the teacher education learning module described here is to increase the user's competency in asking questions that will stimulate higher levels of thinking and learning. Seven specific categories are outlined. The focus is on approaches to thorough and thought-provoking questioning, strategies for analyzing the nature of questions, and coordinating a progressive questioning structure. This descriptive report provides further information on the purposes and content of the program as well as activities and resources involved. Available: National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

Questioning Strategies

1 videocassette (21 min., 44 sec.): 1980.

In this tape we see Mr. Dan Green and his grade six class at McKee Elementary School in Edmonton. The tape presents various questioning strategies, including, positive questioning, personal questions, refocusing, redirection and soliciting feedback. Available: University of Alberta.

INFORMATION RE: AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

ACCESS Network. Dubbing Centre, 295 Midpark Way South East, Calgary, Alberta, T2N 4J8. (256 - 1100)

Agency for Instructional Television (AIT Collection). Box A, Bloomington, Indiana, 47402.

All series in the AIT Collection are available in more than one video format. In addition, some series are available for purchase on 16mm. film. Most can be rented by instructional broadcast services for reception in classrooms. All may be recorded by schools to play back at their convenience. Programs are available for preview, purchase and rental. For information, contact the publisher.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). Department 1184, 225 N. Washington Street, Alexandria, VA., 22314.

Each videotape may be rented for a five-day period. If you decide to buy the program, the rental fee will be credited to the purchase price. When ordering, please give a preferred and an alternate date for showing. The rental fee is $50.00 for five days. A catalogue entitled "Media for Staff Development" is available from the publisher. As well, check with Library Services.

Library Services. 11160 Jasper Avenue, 4th Floor West, Edmonton, Alberta, T5K OL2.

Library Services provides lending and dubbing services to the Department and to Alberta Schools without charge. Videotapes may be dubbed on ½-inch or 3/4-inch VHS-type cassette. Kits and 16mm. films may be requested on a Materials Request Form or by telephone. These forms may be obtained by telephoning or by writing to the above address. Distribution of materials is restricted to Alberta Education personnel, including Regional Offices, superintendents, local school board office personnel and IMC directors, principals and teachers, ATA Specialist Council personnel, University Faculty of Education personnel, Community Colleges, other Advanced Education institutions offering teacher-aide programs, and all Early Childhood educators who come under the jurisdiction of Alberta Education.

Marlin Motion Pictures Ltd. Suite 200, 211 Watline Avenue, Mississauga, Ontario, L4Z 1P3.

Marlin Motion Pictures Ltd. Suite 1212, 666 St. James Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba, R3G 3J6.

"Mondays, Marbles and Chalk" is available for short-term rental or long-term lease. For more information contact Mavis Swiston at 890-1500.

National Resource and Dissemination Center. University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, 33620. (813) 974-2875

Distributor for National Education Association. Project on Utilization of Inservice Education R & D Outcomes.

University of Alberta. Instructional Technology Centre, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2E1.

The University offers only dubbing services. A blank cassette may be sent or one may be provided by the University. There is a cost for this service. For more information contact Patricia D. Pasos, Departmental Secretary at the above address.